

# Saturday



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## RUBENS AND HIS WORKS. II.



THE "CHAPEAU DE PAILLE:" IN THE COLLECTION OF SIR ROBERT PEEL.

On the 29th of September, 1626, Rubens sustained a severe domestic calamity, in the loss of his beloved wife. This loss affected him with that acute sorrow which is usually felt by persons of lively and energetic minds, when subjected to affliction. To divert his mind, he took a journey to Holland, and visited the most distinguished painters there. He gave due praise to their works, and purchased one or more pictures from each of them. Joachim Sandrart, then in his twenty-first year, was appointed to accompany the artist on a tour to the different towns in Holland, and, in his work called the *German Academy*, he thus notices the circumstance:—

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"I could find much to relate of this journey, and of the worthy conduct of Rubens, but will merely say, that, as he is distinguished in art, so have I found him eminent in virtues; and I have seen him looked up to with admiration everywhere by persons of high and low degree."

The knowledge of the world acquired by Rubens in the various scenes on which he was called to enter, his extensive acquaintance with political subjects, and with foreign languages, and the peculiar advantages attending his cultivated mind and elegant manners, prepared the way for his becoming useful in a new and totally different character to that of an artist.

The Archduke Albert, shortly before his death, enjoined his wife to trust to the advice of Rubens in matters of difficulty, as to that of a wise, upright, and clear-headed man. From that time Rubens received many marks of favour from the Infanta, and was employed by her in several important political negotiations, among which was an embassy to Spain, and afterwards to London, to negotiate a peace. Rubens remained many months at Madrid, during which time he completed eight pictures for the large saloon of the palace, and several portraits of Philip IV. and of some of the illustrious persons at Court. In August, 1629, he received his final instructions, and, being furnished with credentials for the British Court, he departed, loaded with presents and honours. On his return to Brussels, the Infanta expressed her approbation of the instructions given by the Court of Spain, and an order was issued for his immediate departure for England.

In October, 1629, Rubens arrived in London, on this secret mission from the Courts of Spain and Flanders. His friend, the Duke of Buckingham, had been dead upwards of a year; and the object of his arrival being then a profound secret, much caution was necessary to prevent the premature disclosure of his plans. He succeeded in procuring an introduction to the Chancellor, Lord Francis Cottington, and so pleased that nobleman that he informed the King of the artist's arrival. His Majesty named an early day for his admission to an audience. In this interview, the King questioned him on many subjects, and, being pleased with his candour and eloquence, appointed a day to sit to him for his portrait. While thus engaged, the artist skilfully contrived to speak of the object of his mission, and remarked, that, "if the two Courts were reciprocally disposed to arrange their differences, the means were at hand." To which Charles replied—"If the King of Spain is of this opinion (as you seem to indicate), why does he not send some one to open a negotiation?" This was the expected question, to which a ready answer was given—"Sire, if I might presume to the honour of being acceptable to your Majesty in that capacity, I could explain myself more openly on the intentions of the King my master, in virtue of the credentials with which his Majesty has furnished me." Charles was pleased with an honourable opportunity of making peace, and the more so, as the war had been undertaken by Buckingham somewhat capriciously, and the resources of England had been greatly diminished through it and the war with France. But the negotiations proceeded so slowly that Rubens found time to execute several pictures. His first production was an allegory, representing the blessings of peace and the horrors of war, "which," says Waagen, "he presented to the king as a tangible recommendation of the pacific measures he had come to propose." This picture, after the breaking up of the collection of Charles I., passed into the possession of the family Balbi of Genoa. It was, however, obtained by the Marquess of Stafford during the French Revolution, and by him munificently presented to the National Gallery. Rubens also painted a St. George engaged in combat with the Dragon: this production is now in Windsor Castle. Also, an Assumption of the Virgin Mary; as also the sketches for the nine pictures which were intended to represent, in an allegorical style, the illustrious deeds of James I., intended for the ceiling of the Hall of the Ambassadors, now the Chapel at Whitehall. The pictures were finished at a later date in Antwerp, as was the custom with this artist in all large works: Rubens is said to have received 3000*l.* for them. The figures are all of colossal proportion, but have suffered much from repeated restorations.

The artist received repeated tokens of favour and reward from the King. In February, 1630, he was knighted in Whitehall, and the King presented to him the

sword with which he had performed the ceremony; and when, in November, the treaty of peace was ready to be signed at the Court of Spain, Rubens, on taking leave, received a handsome service of plate, and the portrait of the King, attached to a rich chain of gold, which last, in grateful remembrance, he ever after wore around his neck. But while thus successful in gaining the favour of the King of England, he kept steadily before his view the interests of the Court of Spain, as is proved by the fact that the articles of peace were most disadvantageous to England, and also by the honourable reception which Rubens met with at the Court of Madrid, whither he proceeded to give an account of his diplomatic labours. Philip IV. accompanied his expressions of high approbation with many costly presents. The artist having again painted the portraits of the King and several of his courtiers, with some other pictures of value, besides taking the measurement for works intended for the Palace Torre de la Parada, again returned to Brussels, where a gracious reception awaited him from the Infanta.

We must here interrupt our narrative to describe the celebrated picture from which the subject of our frontispiece has been taken. This picture, probably the most celebrated of all Rubens' portraits, is called the *Chapeau de Paille*, and is now the chief ornament of the fine collection of Sir Robert Peel, in London.

No picture justifies more than this the appellation which Rubens has obtained, of the painter of light. No one who has not beheld this masterpiece of painting can form any conception of the transparency and brilliancy with which the local colouring in the features and complexion, though under the shadow of a broad-brimmed Spanish beaver hat, are brought out and made to tell; while the different parts are rounded and relieved with the finest knowledge and use of reflected lights. The expression of those youthful features beaming with cheerfulness, is so full of life, and has such a perfect charm, that one is inclined to believe the tradition, that Rubens fell in love with the original (a young girl of the Landens' family at Antwerp,) whilst she was sitting to him. The treatment throughout displays a master-hand, capable of sporting with its subject and material.—WAAGEN.

The very inappropriate name of *Chapeau de Paille*, or Straw Hat, can only have been given to this picture in later days; for in the catalogue of pictures taken after the death of Rubens, this picture is entered simply as "A Portrait of a Young Lady, with her hands crossed in front." Mr. John Smith, who imported the picture into this country, gives some curious and interesting particulars respecting it. He describes the picture as the portrait of a young lady "wearing a black Spanish hat, adorned with black and white feathers, and elegantly attired, according to the costume of the time, in a black velvet bodice and skirt, with scarlet sleeves and white epaulettes, tied with rose-colour ribbons, and a tawny-colour scarf, thrown in a negligent manner over the shoulders; the hands are passed over each other in front, the left one holding the scarf. Her complexion is most delicately fair, but the hat inclining forward, throws a shade over the upper part of the face, which, by the reflex from the white bosom, is rendered beautifully transparent. She is represented passing before the exterior of a window, on a fine sunny day, the effect of which is strikingly denoted in the brilliancy of the colouring."

The artist is said to have prized this picture so highly that he never could be induced to part with it. After his death, and that of his widow, it passed into the family of Landens, where it remained as a joint property until a few years back, when it was purchased by Baron Stiers d'Aertselaer, for 2000*l.* On the decease of the Baron it was sold for the benefit of his children, in a collection of other valuable pictures, at Antwerp, on the 29th July, 1822, and was purchased by Mr. Smith, in conjunction with another person, at the total cost of about 3000 guineas.

Shortly after the arrival of the picture in England it

was sent to Carlton House, at the express desire of His Majesty George IV., who was highly delighted with the picture, and retained it a fortnight. An opinion having been expressed by His Majesty's advisers that the price demanded was too high, Mr. Smith, "anxious to see so distinguished a specimen of the art in the royal collection, offered to accept such remuneration upon the prime cost as those gentlemen might think fit to recommend." "A proposition was then made, that some other pictures should be taken in part exchange, but they proved to be of such very indifferent quality," says Mr. Smith, that he was "under the necessity of refusing them. Thus the affair terminated."

In March, 1823, it was exhibited at Mr. Stanley's Rooms, Old Bond-street, and was viewed with general admiration and applause. During the four months of its exhibition nearly twenty thousand persons are stated to have visited it; after which it was bought by Sir Robert Peel for 3500 guineas.

#### FUNERAL CEREMONIES OF THE ANCIENT KINGS OF MEXICO.

WHEN a king of Mexico died, a lock of his hair was cut off as a relic, for therein lay the remembrance of his soul, an emerald was put into his mouth, and his body was wrapped in seventeen costly and curiously wrought mantles. Upon the outer mantle was the device or arms of that idol to whom he was most devoted, and in whose temple the body was to be buried. Upon the king's face was a visor, painted with devilish gestures, and beset with jewels; then they killed the slave whose office it was to light the lamps and make the fire to the gods of the palace. They then carry the body to the temple, with targets, arrows, maces, and ensigns, to throw into the funeral fire. The priests, some of whom are called Papas, and dress in black, receive him with a sorrowful song, and drums and flutes; and the body is cast into the fire, together with jewels, and a dog newly strangled to serve as a guide. Then about two hundred persons are sacrificed by the priest, to serve him. The fourth day fifteen slaves, upon the twentieth day five, and on the sixtieth day three, are sacrificed for his soul. The ashes and the lock of hair, with another which had been saved from the time of his birth, were put into a chest, painted on the inside with devilish shapes, on which chest was the image of the king. The king of Michnacac observed the like bloody rites; many gentlewomen were appointed to office in the service of the deceased, and while his body was burning, were killed with clubs, and buried four and four in a grave: slaves and free maidens were killed to attend the gentlewomen.—PURCHAS.

#### SEA PIECE IN THE PACIFIC.

ON approaching the land, we found that the barrier reef which encircles it afforded but one narrow entrance; and even this was occupied by powerful and rapid rollers, which were anything but inviting. A canoe, fishing in the offing, enabled us to obtain a pilot; when taking advantage of a tranquil interval, we pushed through the swell, and passed by an abrupt transition into the vast expanse of lagoon water between the reef and the main-land.

It is impossible to imagine a scene more perfectly beautiful than the one presented to our view as we glided through this placid sea, and towards the land, which rose towering, rocky, and isolated, at the distance of about three miles ahead of us. On every side a broad sheet of water, mapped out in various hues corresponding with its depth, contrasted strongly with the turbulence of the ocean outside the reef; while the bosom of the lagoon was strewn with many coral islets, level, circular, and often of great extent; their shores girded by a sandy beach of dazzling whiteness, and their soil covered with cocoa-nut palms, pandanus and casuarina trees, as well as with a short and verdant pasturage, unencumbered by any other underwood than a few bushes of Cape jessamine. Here and there a solitary hut appeared amidst the foliage of these motus; and some small goats (probably left here by a ship) ceased to browse on our approach, and followed the boats along the beach, bleating forth a plaintive recognition. The serenity of the morning and the sweet odour of pandanus flowers combined to increase the attractions of this enchanting spot, and conveyed an impression on which memory yet dwells with extreme pleasure.—BENNETT'S *Whaling Voyage*.

#### THE LADDER TO THRIFTE.

To take thy calling thankfully,  
And shunne the path to beggary.  
To grudge in youth no rudgerie,  
To come by knowledge perfectly.  
To count no travell slaverie,  
That brings in penny saverie.  
To follow profite earnestly,  
But meddle with no pelfery.  
To get by honest practisy,  
And keepe thy gettings covertly.  
To lash not out too lashingly,  
For feare of pinching penurie.  
To get good plotte to occupie,  
And store and use it husbandly.  
To shew thy landlord courtisy,  
And keepe thy covenantes orderly.  
To hold that thine is lawfully,  
For stoutnesse or for flatterie.  
To wed good wife for companie,  
And live in wedlocke honestly.  
To furnish house with housholdrie,  
And make provision skilfully.  
To joyne to wife good familie,  
And none to keepe for braverie.  
To suffer none live idely,  
For feare of idle knaverie.  
To courage wife in huswiferie,  
And use well-doers gently.  
To keepe no more but needefully,  
And count excesse unsavourie,  
To raise beestimes up readily,  
Both smorting Hob and Margerie.  
To walk thy pastures usually,  
To spie ill neighbours subtilly.  
To hate revengement hastily,  
For losing love and amitie.  
To live by neighbour neighbourly  
And shew him no discourtesie.  
To answer straungers civilly,  
But shew him not thy secreasy.  
To use no frend delectefully,  
And offer no man villanie.  
To learne howe foe to pacifie,  
But trust him not too trustily.  
To keep thy touch substantially,  
And in thy worde use constancie.  
To make thy bondes advisedly,  
And come not bounde through surety.  
To hate to live in infamie,  
Through craft and living naughtilie.  
To banish house of blasphemie,  
Least crosses cross unluckily.  
To stop mischance through policie,  
For chancing too unhappily.  
To beare thy crosses patiently,  
For worldly things are slippery.  
To traine thy childe up vertuously,  
That vertue vice may qualifie.  
To bridle wild oates' fantasy,  
To spend thee nought unthriftilie.  
To pray to God continually,  
To aide thee against thine enimie.  
To spend the Sabbath holly,  
And helpe the poore in miserie.  
To live in conscience quietly,  
And keepe thyselfe from malady.  
To ease thy sicknesse speedily,  
Ere helpe be past recoverie.  
These be the steppes unfeinedly,  
To climb to thrift by husbandrie.  
These steppes both teach,  
and reach thee shall;  
To come by thrift,  
to shift withall.

[Taken from the end of *A Booke of Christian Questions and Answers of 1481*.]

THE framer of preventive laws, no less than private tutors and schoolmasters, should remember that the readiest way to make either mind or body grow awry is by lacing it too tight.—SOUTHEY.



### THE PHOTOMETER, OR LIGHT-MEASURER.

IT is a subject for regret that science has not yet furnished an instrument of sufficient accuracy and delicacy to measure light, as the thermometer measures heat. Although the quantity of light which falls upon the earth is very unequal at different times, depending, as it does, upon the height of the sun, upon clouds, and upon certain states of the atmosphere, yet there are no means for comparing days together, under the relation of their degree of light, as we are accustomed to compare them with respect to heat. The photometers that we at present possess are adequate to little more than the comparison of two luminous bodies, and then this comparison is only exact within certain limits. The difficulties which attend inquiries of this nature are well stated by a high authority in this department of science.

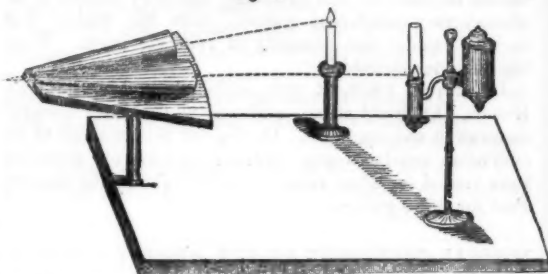
We know of no instrument, no contrivance, as yet, by which light alone, (as such,) can be made to produce mechanical motion, so as to mark a point upon a scale, or in any way to give a direct reading off of its intensity, or quantity at any moment. This obliges us to refer all our estimations of the degrees of brightness at once to our organs of vision, and to judge of their amount by the impression they produce immediately on our sense of sight. But the eye, though sensible to an astonishing range of different degrees of illumination, is (partly on that very account) but little capable of judging of their relative strength, or even of recognising their identity when presented at intervals of time, especially at distant intervals. In this manner the judgment of the eye is as little to be depended on for a measure of light, as that of the hand would be for the weight of a body casually presented. This uncertainty, too, is increased by the nature of the organ itself, which is in a constant state of fluctuation; the opening of the pupil, which admits the light, being continually expanding and contracting by the stimulus of the light itself, and the sensibility of the nerves which feel the impression varying at every instant. Let any one call to mind the blinding and overpowering effect of a flash of lightning in a dark night, compared with the sensation an equally vivid flash produces in full day-light. In the one case the eye is painfully affected, and the violent agitation into which the nerves of the retina are thrown is sensible for many seconds afterwards, in a series of imaginary alternations of light and darkness. By day no such effect is produced, and we trace the course of the flash, and the zig-zags of its motion, with perfect distinctness and tranquillity, and without any of those ideas of overpowering intensities, which previous and subsequent total darkness attach to it.

But yet more. When two unequally illuminated objects (surfaces of white paper for instance) are presented at once to the sight, though we pronounce immediately on the existence of a difference, and see that one is brighter than the other, we are quite unable to say what is the proportion between them. Illuminate half a sheet of paper by the light of one candle, and the other half by that of several, the difference will be evident. But if ten different persons are desired, from their appearance only, to guess at the number of candles shining on each, the probability is, that no two will agree. Nay, even the same person, at different times, will form different judgments. This throws additional difficulty in the way of photometrical estimations, and would seem to render this one of the most delicate and difficult departments of optics.—HERSCHEL'S *Treatise on Light*.

Under favourable circumstances, however, the eye is a tolerably exact judge of the equality of two degrees of illumination seen at once. If, for example, we wish to ascertain the relative quantities of light furnished by two different lamps, the most simple method is to place two disks of white paper on a wall a few feet apart, and to illuminate one disk with the light of one lamp, and the other disk with that of the other: then the lamp which affords most light must be removed to such a distance that the two disks may appear equally illuminated. On comparing the distance between each lamp and its corresponding disk, we shall be able to calculate the luminous intensities of the two lamps. These intensities are to each other as the square of the

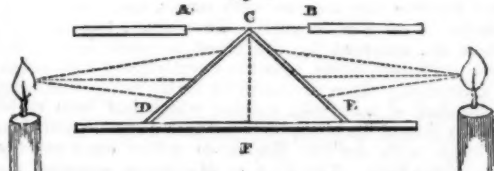
distance: that is, suppose that when the disks are equally illuminated, the distance from one lamp to its disk is double the distance of the second lamp from its disk, then the first lamp is four times more luminous than the second; nine times more luminous if the distance be triple, and so on. This method is not very exact, because the eye cannot appreciate accurately, the amount of light necessary to make the two disks equally bright. A better method is shown in fig. 1: two conical

Fig. 1.



tubes are united at their smaller extremities, and terminated at this place by two disks of white paper. If we wish to compare the light of a lamp with that of a candle, in order to ascertain how many candles will give a light equivalent to that of the lamp, the two lights are placed so far apart that their rays shall not interfere, the broad end of one of the tubes is directed to the lamp, and the broad end of the other tube to the candle. The lamp is then drawn back, or the candle moved forward, until the two disks appear equally luminous. The distances are then measured, and the calculation made as before.

Fig. 2.

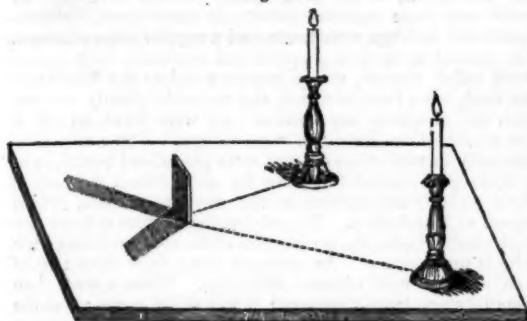


The photometer of the late Professor Ritchie is the most perfect instrument constructed, for measuring the relative brightness of two lights, provided they are of the same colour, a condition which also applies to the two methods just given. A vertical section of Ritchie's photometer is shown in fig. 2. It consists of a rectangular box, open at both ends, and blackened within, to absorb extraneous light. On the top is a long, narrow, rectangular slip A B, covered with tissue or oiled paper. Within are two sheets of looking-glass, C D and C E, cut from the same piece in order to secure uniformity of reflection. Each sheet has the same width as the box, and its reflecting surface is turned towards the open end of the box. The upper edges of the mirrors rest against each other at C, where there is a line which divides the space A B into two equal parts. This line is formed of black card to prevent the mingling of the lights reflected from the two mirrors. In using the instrument it is placed between the lights, whose intensities are to be compared, so that they may be reflected from C D and C E, upon the tissue A B. It is then approached nearer to one or the other, until, to an eye situated above A B, the two portions A C and B C appear equally illuminated, which, on account of the immediate proximity of A C and B C, may be determined with tolerable accuracy. The distances must be measured from the vertical C F. In viewing the illuminated disk, it is well to look at it through a prismatic box, about eight inches long, blackened within to absorb shining light. One end of this box is to rest on the upper part A B of the photometer, and the other to be applied close to the eye. Sometimes, instead of using mirrors and the paper-screen,

the inclined planes are covered with white paper, and looked at directly through the aperture. However the instrument be used, a mean of several observations should be taken, the instrument being turned round each time. When the lights compared are of different colours (as daylight, or moonlight, and candlelight) the rectangular opening *AB* is to be covered with a piece of fine white paper, printed distinctly with a small type; the paper is to be brushed over with oil, and then the instrument being placed between the lights, they are to be moved till the printing can be read continuously along the paper, with equal ease on the one side as on the other. Or the printed paper may be pasted on the mirrors, or the inclined surfaces against which they lie, and is then to be read through the opening. It is of advantage to enlarge the openings in their applications of printed paper.

The simple method of comparing two sources of illumination by means of shadows (fig. 3), was contrived

Fig. 3.



by Count Rumford. The two lights are so arranged that each may cast a shadow of some object, such as a book or a stick upon a plane, white surface: the eye can then form a tolerable judgment of the relative darkness of these shadows. The brighter light, which casts the deepest shadow, is then to be removed, or the weaker to be approached, till the two are equalized, and the distance of the two lights from the object which intercept their rays being measured, the relative intensity of the lights will be, as before, as the squares of the distances. In this case the shadow of one light is illuminated solely by the rays of the other, while the surrounding space is illuminated by the rays of both; when the shadows therefore are equal, the lights are equal.

The method of Count Rumford is so easy that we trust our young readers will try a few experiments with it. All the apparatus required is a large table, with the white table-cloth on to receive the shadows, and a little book to cast them. The inventor applied this method to measure the variations in light, furnished by a candle left unsnuffed. There are few persons who do not feel annoyed to have to use the snuffers so often, but we know that if they are allowed to remain idle, carbon accumulates in the wick, and hinders the combustion of the tallow. Now supposing the light furnished by a candle when properly snuffed to equal 100, and if it be allowed to burn untouched during 11 minutes, the light will then be equal to only 39; and if allowed to burn unsnuffed during half an hour, only 16. Or, in other words, a room is equally well lighted, whether we put into it two candles that have just been snuffed, or five candles that have remained 11 minutes without snuffing, or thirteen candles that have been half an hour unsnuffed. It may, perhaps, be thought that we do not need a scientific instrument to convince us of the utility of snuffing candles; but it may be useful to know the extent of the utility of a pair of snuffers.

The photometer of Professor Leslie is constructed on the principle that light is convertible into heat. This principle, however, is not established, and, therefore, no dependence can be placed upon the instrument. It con-

sists of the differential thermometer, of which one of the bulbs is blackened and the other clear: a glass case is put over the instrument to exclude rays of heat. When this instrument is used, the light to which it is exposed passes through the clear ball, but is absorbed by the black, and, supposing this light to be converted into heat, the rise of temperature will indicate the degree of illumination. In speaking of this instrument the ventor says, that when

Placed in the open air, it exhibits distinctly the progress of illumination, from the morning's dawn to the full vigour of noon, and thence its gradual decline till evening has spread her mantle; it marks the growth of light from the winter solstice to the height of summer, and its subsequent decay through the dusky shades of autumn; and it enables us to compare, with numerical accuracy, the brightness of different countries, the brilliant sky of Italy, for instance, with the murky atmosphere of Holland.

These remarks apply quite as much to a delicate air thermometer, as this photometer essentially was, as to the instrument with which it was professed to measure light. Indeed when we notice the discrepancies in the results of those whose reputation for accurate observation stands deservedly high, we must at once admit the imperfection of all photometrical measurements hitherto made. Leslie fixes the relative intensity of solar light to lunar light at 94,500: Bouguer finds it to be 256,289; and Wollaston 800,000. The great difference between these numbers depends not only upon the uncertainty of the means of observation, but also upon the state of the atmosphere, and the altitude of the heavenly bodies, at the times of observation. Leslie also infers that the light emitted from the sun is 12,000 times more powerful than the flame of a wax candle; so that, if a portion of the luminous solar matter, rather less than an inch in diameter, were transported to our planet, it would throw forth a blaze of light equal to the effect of 12,000 candles—Bouguer says 30,000 candles.

The discovery of an exact method of estimating the intensity of a natural source of light, such, for example, as a fixed star, would be of great benefit to science, especially to astronomy. Stars might then be classified according to their luminous intensities, and their probable distances from the earth could be thus more perfectly arrived at. The aid which an instrument affords to science depends entirely upon the accuracy of its indications: it is valuable only when it affords the same numerical results whenever and wherever the same forces concur to produce them, and when any variation in the forces is met by a corresponding variation in the results.

#### ON EARLY RISING.

RISE with the lark, and with the lark to bed.  
The breath of night's destructive to the hue  
Of every flower that blows. Go to the field,  
And ask the humble daisy why it sleeps  
Soon as the sun departs: why close the eyes  
Of blossoms infinite, ere the still moon  
Her oriental veil puts off! Think why,  
Nor let the sweetest blossom be exposed  
That nature boasts, to night's unkindly damp.  
Give to repose the solemn hour she claims;  
And from the forehead of the morning steal  
The sweet occasion. Oh! there is a charm  
That morning has that gives the brow of age  
A smack of youth, and makes the lip of youth  
Breathe perfumes exquisite. Expect it not,  
Ye who till noon upon a down-bed lie,  
Indulging feverish sleep, or, wakeful, dream  
Of happiness no mortal heart has felt  
But in the regions of romance. Ye fair,  
Like you it must be wooed or never won,  
And, being lost, it is in vain ye ask  
For milk of roses and Olympian dew;  
Cosmetic art no tincture can afford,  
The faded features to restore: no chain,  
Be it of gold, and strong as adamant,  
Can fetter beauty to the fair one's will.—HURDIS.



## AVARICE.

An avaricious man will be little affected by the arguments of reason, philosophy, or religion; he is born and framed to a sordid love of money, which first appears when he is very young, grows up with him, and increases in the middle age, and when he is old, and all the rest of his passions have subsided, wholly engrosses him—the greatest endowments of the mind, the greatest abilities in a profession, and even the quiet possession of an immense treasure, will never prevail against avarice.

My Lord Hardwick, the late Lord Chancellor, who is said to be worth 800,000*l.*, sets the same value on half-a-crown now as he did when he was only worth 100*l.* That great Captain, the Duke of Marlborough, when he was in the last stage of life, and very infirm, would walk from the public rooms in Bath to his lodgings in a cold and dark night to save sixpence in chair-hire. If the Duke, who left at his death more than a million and a half sterling, could have foreseen that all his wealth and honours were to be inherited by a grandson of my Lord Trevor's who had been one of his enemies, would he have been so careful to save sixpence for the sake of his heir? Not for the sake of his heir; but he would always have saved a sixpence.

Sir James Lowther, after changing a piece of silver in George's coffee-house, and paying twopence for his dish of coffee, was helped into his chariot, (for he was then very lame and infirm,) and went home. Some little time after, he returned to acquaint the woman who kept it, that she had given him a bad half-penny. Sir James had about 40,000*l.* per annum, and was at a loss whom to appoint his heir.

I knew one Sir Thomas Colby who killed himself by rising in the middle of the night when he was in a very profuse perspiration, the effect of sudorific medicine which he had taken, and walking down stairs to look for the key of his cellar, which he had inadvertently left on a table in his parlour: he was apprehensive that his servants might seize the key and rob him of a bottle of port wine. This man died intestate, and left more than 200,000*l.* in the funds, which was shared among five or six day labourers, who were his nearest relations.

Sir William Smyth of Bedfordshire, who was my kinsman, when he was near seventy, was wholly deprived of his sight: he was persuaded to be couched by Taylor, the oculist, who, by agreement was to have sixty guineas if he restored his patient to any degree of sight. Taylor succeeded in his operation, and Sir William was able to read and write without the use of spectacles during the rest of his life; but as soon as the operation was performed, and Sir William perceived the good effects of it, instead of being overjoyed, as any other person would have been, he began to lament the loss (as he called it) of his sixty guineas. His contrivance, therefore, now was how to cheat the oculist; he pretended he had only a glimmering, and could see nothing perfectly; for that reason the bandage on his eyes was continued a month longer than the usual time. By this means he obliged Taylor to compound the bargain, and accept of twenty guineas; for a covetous man thinks no method dishonest which he may legally practise to save his money. Sir William was an old bachelor, and at the time Taylor couched him had a fair estate in land, a large sum of money in the stocks, and not less than 5,000*l.* or 6,000*l.* in his house.

But to conclude this article; all the dramatic writers, both ancient and modern, as well as the keenest and most elegant satirists, have exhausted their whole stock of wit to expose avarice; this is the chief subject of Horace's satires and epistles; and yet the character of a covetous man hath never yet been fully drawn or sufficiently explained. The *Eucio* of Plautus, the *L'Avare* of Molière, and the *Miser* of Shadwell, have all been exceeded by some persons who have existed within my own knowledge. If you could bestow on a man of this disposition the wealth of both the Indies, he would not have enough; because by enough (if such a word is to be found in the vocabulary of avarice) he always means something more than he is possessed of. Crassus, who had a yearly income sufficient to maintain a great army, perished, together with his son, in endeavouring to add to his store. In the fable of Midas, the poet had exhibited a complete character, if Midas, instead of renouncing the gift which the god had bestowed on him, had chosen to die, in the act of creating gold.—*From ANECDOTES OF HIS OWN TIMES, by DR. WILLIAM KING, Principal of St. Mary Hall, Oxon., who died in 1763, aged 78.*

## THE FIRST RAILWAYS.

The first railways were of wood, and the earliest account of their introduction occurs in the account of the life of the Lord Keeper North, wherein it appears that about the year 1670 they were employed at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, for transporting coals from the mines to the barges in the river Tyne, in which service, even at that time, when the demand for coals was so limited, nearly five hundred carts were constantly employed. It became, therefore, an important object to reduce the expense of maintaining so many horses, carters, and roads, as these conveyances required; and the plan of wooden rails was the best method which at that time could have been adopted. The situation, too, was favourable, since it presented for the most part, an easy descent towards the river. These roads soon became generally introduced in the coal districts. Strips of ground of the required length were laid out between the mouths of the coal-pits and the river, and were leased to the coal-owners, or purchased by them of the land-owners, through whose property the road extended.

The line of road was varied in its direction, so as to meet the unevenness of the ground, and thereby to obtain an easier and more regular descent; in some cases, embankments and cuttings were made, and a regular slope obtained. The ground being thus prepared and smoothed, large logs of wood called *sleepers*, cut in lengths equal to the breadth of the road, were fixed across it, and embedded firmly at short intervals, to which the wooden rails were fixed, on which the wheels of the carriages were to run. These rails were generally formed of beech, and were placed end to end, so as to form two parallel lines, one for each wheel, the ends of these rails being secured to the wooden sleepers, which served as foundations. The coal-waggons were of large size with small wheels, the smoothness of the road rendering high wheels unnecessary. An ordinary horse drew three tons of coal on this road without difficulty. When a more than usually steep descent occurred, it was called a *run*; and the too rapid descent of the waggons was prevented by a species of crooked lever, or brake, called a *convey*, attached to the waggon and regulated by the driver.

Along the steep banks of the Tyne, the railway was continued on a wooden stage, raised to the height of the top bank of the river, and carried forward until it came over the river side, where a wooden platform, called a *stait*, was erected for the purpose of delivering the coals through shoots or spouts directly into the holds of ships moored underneath, or into a store below, from which the ships might afterwards be conveniently loaded. The defect of these rails arose from the decaying nature of the substance composing them, and the expense of maintaining them in repair greatly detracted from their value. They were much improved by fixing flat bars of iron to their surfaces; but the grand improvement of all consisted in forming the rails altogether of iron, and substituting stone sleepers for those of wood. The first construction of iron rails is said to have originated in a curious circumstance.

The proprietors of the Colebrook Dale Iron Works first determined to cover their wooden rails with cast-iron, not that they thought to improve the rails thereby, but they hoped that if their plan were generally adopted, the sale of iron, in which they were so much interested, would be promoted. "But it happened some time after that the price of pigs\* became very low, and their works being of great extent, in order to keep the furnaces on, they thought it would be the best means of stocking their pigs to lay them on the wooden railways, as it would help to pay the interest of expenses by reducing the repairs of the rails; and if iron should take any sudden rise, there was nothing to do but to take them up and send them away as pigs." This is the account of the first adoption of iron rails, about the year 1767, as given by Hornblower to a committee of the House of Commons on the subject of roads and carriages.—*Roads and Railroads, Vehicles, and Modes of Travelling.*

THE moon shall seem to take some hours in getting half a yard from a star which it touched. But what is the fact? The moon is all this while driving through the heavens at a rate of considerably more than two thousand miles an hour, which is more than double of that with which a ball is shot off from the mouth of a cannon. Yet is this prodigious rapidity as much under government as if the planet proceeded ever so slowly, or was conducted in its course inch by inch.—PALEY.

\* "Pigs of iron," are masses of metal, of a certain form and weight, as delivered from the foundry to the workers in iron.

## SIR T. STAMFORD RAFFLES.

## II.

WHEN Sir Thomas had returned from Holland to England he embarked with his family, in October, 1817, for Sumatra. On arriving at Fort Marlborough, the seat of the English government at Bencoolen, he found the place in a most wretched condition: ruin and dilapidation surrounded them. What with natural impediments, bad government, and the awful visitations of Providence, experienced in repeated earthquakes, there was, as the new governor reported, scarcely a dwelling in which to lay their heads, or wherewithal to satisfy the cravings of nature! The roads were impassable; the streets of the town were overrun with rank grass; and the government-house was a den of ravenous dogs and polecats. With all this, it is only natural to find him describing the people as idle, dissolute, and depraved.

Too zealous to carry into effect the improvements he contemplated, he waited not for orders from home, which would have occasioned the loss of a year; and, conscious that no improvement could take place until he had cleared away the rubbish at Fort Marlborough, he commenced at once by liberating the slaves. He then classified about 500 convicts, sent from Bengal, into three divisions, according to their characters; and in a short time these people, who had been living in the lowest state of degradation, became useful labourers, and happy members of society. He then assembled the native chiefs, and made a treaty with them: by one of the articles the cultivation of pepper was declared to be free, the people being at liberty to cultivate that article or not, as they might think fit.

These people were particularly anxious to be freed from the disgrace which had been attached to their character by the prohibition against wearing their *kris*, according to an ancient custom of the country. The *kris* is the Javan dagger, hanger, or short sword. This prohibition Sir Stamford immediately, and without hesitation, removed. The prohibition had originated in the murder of Mr. Parr, in 1801, who, as governor, had made himself obnoxious by endeavouring to force upon the people the culture of coffee, in addition to that of pepper; besides which, an arbitrary interference with the native courts of justice, without the concurrence or advice of the chiefs, had excited their fears for their ancient customs and institutions. The measures taken on this catastrophe were highly impolitic: several of the natives were blown from the mouths of guns; an order was issued to burn and destroy every village within a certain distance; and the work of devastation was carried on as if the future security of the settlement depended on surrounding it with a desert. The fruit-trees that surrounded the villages, and that were so much loved by the Malaysians, were felled; whatever could afford shelter and protection was levelled with the ground, and the whole population of the suspected villages turned loose upon the country.

The desolate condition of the country surrounding Fort Marlborough was such, on Sir Stamford's first arrival, that no one thought of living out of the settlement, and no servant could be induced to venture out three miles after sunset. The new governor conceived the best way to re-people the country was, to set them an example, by building a house twelve miles out of the town. He accordingly made his country residence on the Hill of Mists, and gave orders for clearing the forest. The wild beasts of the desert, principally tigers and elephants, had long increased upon the natives. Numbers of people were annually carried off by the tigers; and the survivors, instead of resisting, sought to propitiate their persecutors by offerings of rice and fruits; but now, open war was declared and carried on against the whole race of wild and ferocious animals; and Sir

Stamford and his family were soon able to reside upon the Hill of Mists without any danger from their attacks.

In five years from the building of his house on this spot, the whole intermediate space was chequered with villas, and surrounded with plantations. At this time, out of 100,000 nutmeg-trees, which had been planted by Sir Stamford, one-fourth were in full bearing. The nutmeg-tree is exceedingly beautiful; it bears in profusion, and spreads its branches in a wide circle. Its fruit is perhaps the most beautiful in the world: the outside covering, or shell, is of a rich cream colour, and resembles a peach; this bursts, and shows the dark nut, encircled and chequered with mace of the brightest crimson, and, when contrasted with the deep emerald green leaf, is delightfully grateful to the eye.

The avenue to their house was formed, as Lady Raffles tells us, of clove-trees, the noble height of which, the beauty of their form, the luxuriance of their foliage, and, above all, the spicy fragrance with which they perfume the air, produced, in driving through a long line of them, a degree of exquisite pleasure only to be enjoyed in the clear light atmosphere of the latitudes of the Indian Islands. As a proof of the luxuriance of vegetation in this part of the world, it may be stated that, within a twelvemonth, some casuarina-trees had shot up to the height of thirty and forty feet; and the government-house was encircled by a shrubbery of nutmeg, clove, cocoa, and cassia-trees. The place seemed, in fact, to have been converted, almost by magic, from a wilderness into a garden.

It appears to have been once too much the system to exclude even respectable natives from the society of Europeans, both in the settlement of Sumatra, and in most other parts of India. Sir Stamford at once broke down this barrier, and opened his house to the chiefs and higher classes of natives on all occasions; and this practice he continued during the whole period of his residence in Sumatra. His house was rarely without some of them; and, in short, he had constant opportunity of studying their feelings, sentiments, and manners; and such was the confidence they placed in him, that in his measures for the good of the community they were at all times ready to give their cordial co-operation. Both chiefs and people were soon brought to consider him their best friend and adviser: they gave in to his opinion upon all occasions, and harmony and good-will prevailed throughout the settlement.

He likewise accomplished the means for printing in the Roman and native characters, and then proceeded to establish a plan of schools for educating the whole of the native population. He was so far from opposing missionaries, that he declares that the more that came out the better he was pleased:—"Only," says he, "let them be enlightened men, and placed in connexion with the schools, and under due controul."

Though greatly distinguished by his administrative abilities, Sir Stamford Raffles owes his reputation chiefly to his researches into the natural productions of Sumatra, and particularly to his numerous zoological discoveries. He was cheerfully assisted by the natives; and he likewise made various interesting excursions into the interior of the island. Lady Raffles accompanied him, being the first European lady that had ever been seen beyond the confines of Bencoolen. In his first journey was discovered the largest and most extraordinary flower perhaps that exists in the whole creation,—the *Rafflesia Arnoldi*—so called because first observed by Raffles, in company with Dr. Arnold. The natives, however, have long given it the appellation of the "devil's betel-box." We need not here further notice this wonderful production, as the reader will find it fully described, with engravings, at Vol. I., p. 91, of this work. But the whole vegetable part of the creation is here on a magnificent scale.

There is nothing (observes Sir Stamford) more striking



in the Malayan forests than the grandeur of the vegetation: the magnitude of the flowers, creepers, and trees, contrasts strikingly with the stunted, and, I had almost said, pigmy vegetation of England. Compared with our forest-trees, your largest oak is a mere dwarf. Here we have creepers and vines entwining larger trees, and hanging suspended for more than a hundred feet, in girth not less than a man's body, and many much thicker; the trees seldom under a hundred, and generally approaching a hundred and sixty to two hundred feet in height. One tree that we measured was, in circumference, nine yards; and this is nothing to one I measured in Java.

In one of these journeys an occurrence took place, which, while it shows the simplicity of the natives, was rather of a vexatious nature, though quite pardonable, and even amusing. At a place where felspar, granite, quartz, and other minerals of primitive formation were found, mixed with a variety of volcanic productions, Dr. Horsfield, one of the company, got specimens of these, which he gave in charge to some coolies who attended him. After the day's journey he wished to examine this collection: the men produced their baskets full of stones, but on the doctor's exclaiming they were not what he had given them, and expressing some anger on the occasion, they simply observed that they thought he only wanted stones; and as they preferred carrying their baskets empty they threw away what he gave them, and filled them up at the end of the day's journey, and they were sure they gave him more than he collected.

After visiting the Paisuma country, he made another and a longer journey to the capital of Menangkabu, the original of all the Malayan governments: This distant and retired portion of Sumatra possesses an extensive population and a high state of cultivation. Innumerable towns and villages succeed each other, shaded by the cocoa-nut and other fruit-trees. There were also the remains of buildings, and inscriptions that proved a remote antiquity. Sir Stamford decidedly believed it to be the wreck of a great empire, hardly known to us but by name.

Governor Raffles soon after turned his attention to the island of Nias, opposite the settlement of Tappanooly, off the western coast of Sumatra. His description of Pulo Nias seems very highly coloured, though doubtlessly grounded on truth. His proceedings with a view to protect and encourage the people of Nias in habits of industry were not however universally approved of by the authorities at home. The Court of Directors observed that as they "had no hesitation in declaring that his proceedings in regard to Pulo Nias were deserving of their decided reprehension, they were inclined to visit him with some severe mark of their displeasure for the steps he had taken in reference to the suppression of the slave-trade," and they even threatened to remove him from his government.

We must not omit to notice the settlement of Singapore, which owes its origin to the genius and activity of Sir Stamford Raffles. The Dutch had long possessed themselves of the only passes through which ships could sail into the Indian Archipelago and the China seas, namely, the Straits of Sunda and Malacca; and such was the situation of Great Britain that she had not left herself an inch of ground to stand upon in the whole track between the Cape of Good Hope and China, nor a single friendly port at which her ships could water, or obtain refreshment. This was much regretted by Sir Stamford, who, conceiving that a personal communication with the Governor General might be useful, with his usual decision and zeal immediately set out for Calcutta. Here it was arranged that, as the Straits of Sunda were completely in possession of the Dutch, Sir Stamford, as an authorized agent of the Governor-General, should endeavour to find out some central station for the benefit of commerce within the Archipelago, so as to secure a free and uninterrupted passage with China through the Straits of Malacca.

This was quite enough, as Sir Stamford had already fixed in his own mind the position that would answer every purpose. To use his own words,—“he neither wanted people nor territory; all he asked was, permission to anchor a line-of-battle ship, and hoist the English flag at the mouth either of the Straits of Malacca, or of Sunda, and the trade of England should be secured.”

Singapore, an island at the eastern mouth of the Straits of Malacca, and south of the Malay country, was the spot to accomplish this project; and there he accordingly, in February, 1819, hoisted the British flag. This settlement has gone on prospering and increasing: its population, its imports and exports, are wonderfully enlarged. The articles dealt in are all those of China, the Oriental islands, and the Indo-Chinese countries, with British cottons, and other manufactures. This station, as Raffles justly observes, “is by far the most important station in the East; and as far as naval superiority and commercial interests are concerned, of much higher value than whole continents of territory.”

For this flourishing settlement Sir Stamford framed a code of laws and regulations grounded on the simplest principles of equity and justice. Slavery, gaming, and cock-fighting were expressly interdicted. He likewise founded an educational institution, the object of which was, “the cultivation of Chinese and Malayan literature, with the improvement of the moral and intellectual condition of the people.”

We must now conclude our notice of this excellent man's life by adverting to the calamities which came thickly upon him in his latter days. His incessant activity of body and mind, in a latitude so near the equator, made him experience at intervals serious attacks of fever: Lady Raffles too suffered much from illness; so that their thoughts naturally began to turn towards home. But, ere arrangements could be made for a passage to England, four of their five children died, and the youngest was sent away at once to England in the charge of an old nurse.

Broken down by sickness and affliction, all their friends day after day dying around them, Sir Stamford resolved to embark for England, and took his passage on the 4th of February, 1824, in the *Fame*. This ship took fire the same night by the carelessness of the steward. The crew and passengers with difficulty saved themselves in the boats, and Sir Stamford was obliged to remain at Bencoolen till the following April. By this disastrous event he entirely lost the greatest part of the extensive collection which he had formed of animals and plants, as well as many volumes of manuscripts and drawings relative to the civil and natural history of nearly every island in the Malayan Archipelago: besides this, which might be considered as a public misfortune, his own pecuniary loss by the burning of the ship amounted to upwards of 20,000*l*.

After his return to England, he founded the present Zoological Society, of which he was the first president. His health, however, never recovered the shock which it had sustained, and he died in 1826, before he had time to arrange the numerous materials which he had collected in the East: he was only forty-five years old at his decease. We have already given a fuller account of the misfortunes of his last years at p. 85, Vol. IV., of this work.

CONVERSATION is the daughter of reasoning, the mother of knowledge, the health of the soul, the commerce of hearts, the bond of friendship, the nourishment of content, and the occupation of men of wit.

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